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SCHOOLS TEACHERS AND SCHOLARS IN SOVIET RUSSIA

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A GROUP AT A UNIFIED LABOUR SCHOOL LENINGRAD WITH MEMBERS OF THE DELEGATION

SCHOOLS TEACHERS AND SCHOLARS IN SOVIET RUSSIA

(Report by Teachers' Labour League Delegation)

With a Foreword by

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M.A.

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TO THE
EDUCATIONAL WORKERS'
INTERNATIONAL

FOREWORD

I CAN give this little book a cordial recommendation for two good reasons—first, that it is a report made by teachers who were investigating their own job ; and second, that I have myself had connections with Russian education over a considerable number of years, and have investigated therein, recently. So that here is not only a report by experts, but also, as I can testify, an accurate one.

Insistence is correctly placed on the evil heritage from Tsaristic times, a thing which is so generally forgotten, but which was in reality appalling. It is this heritage—illiteracy and ignorance—which offers the solid resistance, the block of opposition, that must be removed before the real wishes and intentions of the Soviets in matters educational can have free play.

Still, in the words of this report, " in spite of material poverty, the educational service in Russia is throbbing with experimental and constructive intellectual activity." That is, to me, a very true saying. And the fact is a good augury for the success of the educational activity of the Soviets in the near future. It is just as easy to

form too rosy an idea of education under the Soviets, as it is to disapprove, irrationally, of everything that happens in Russia. The report steers carefully between the two extremes, and gives the calm and considered opinion of educational experts, bent on making the utmost use of the opportunities at their disposal.

There is so much that is attractive in Russian education and methods, that a teacher going to Russia feels he is in a sort of educational laboratory, where everything which shows promise is being tried, and out of which something which will be good for the world *must* come.

If this report should turn the attention of teachers towards this side of the question, it will have done the world good service.

WM. T. GOODE.

INTRODUCTION

The intellectual blockade of the U.S.S.R. by the rest of the cultured world, together with the continuous falsification of news from Russia by almost the whole of the Capitalist Press, makes visits to that country by individuals who will report to their fellow-countrymen, of the greatest value in getting accurate information from one country to the other. So when, as a result of the contact between Russian and English teachers—secured through the agency of the Education Workers' International to which the Teachers' Labour League is affiliated—an invitation came from the Russian Educational Workers' Union to the T.L.L. to send delegations to the U.S.S.R., it was gladly accepted. Invitations were sent out to the other teachers' organisations, but the only one of these which sent delegates was the National Union of Women Teachers.

The Report does not attempt to give an exhaustive account of Education in the U.S.S.R. The material on which it is based was mainly gathered by two delegations during an intensive fortnight's investigation in July and August 1926, a period not long enough for detailed study, but sufficiently long to form impressions, to make observations, and to come to conclusions which are of the utmost value to educational and other workers in this country. This material was held over in order that a Teachers' Labour League investigator—who spent five and a half months in

Russia this winter and spring (1928) travelling not only in the Leningrad and Moscow districts, but *via* Riazan and Veronezh to Buka and Tiflis, returning *via* Rostov and Kharkov and spending a week studying a backward country district near Kaluga among typical peasant conditions—might further confirm the conclusions and amplify the impressions of the earlier visits.

The delegations, in discussion with officials of the Russian Educational Workers' Union and with teachers, compiled their own timetable.

One member of the delegations spoke Russian, a few spoke or read German and most spoke and read French. Most Russian Educationalists speak either German, English or French. The delegations were free to visit any type of institution and they exercised this freedom fully. They were free to go where they wished in their "spare" time—or in the time which they made to be "spare"—and the Report contains particulars of observations made under these circumstances. Owing to the fact that the visits took place in late July and August, the delegations were not able to visit many ordinary schools in normal session as holidays were of course the order of the day. To a large extent, however, this was remedied by the visit of the investigator and by the fact that illness detained one of the delegates until well into the Autumn. On his recovery after skilful and successful treatment in a Moscow hospital, he was able to visit further schools at work.

In the ever intensifying world-wide struggle of the workers against the conditions imposed upon them by Capitalism, the accession to power of the workers and peasants of the U.S.S.R. is of fundamental importance. In Russia the workers of the world register their first

complete victory in this struggle. It was the unbreakable determination of the great mass of workers and peasants which placed Lenin at the head of the first Workers' State; it was the strength of this determination which preserved intact the fruits of the Revolution in the face of foreign intervention, counter revolution and famine; and since the victory of the workers over these elements, it is this determination which has supplied the driving force for the great constructive work of building a Socialist State which, in spite of bitter and most unscrupulous opposition by the imperialists of the rest of the world, has gone forward and is going forward successfully to-day.

That the Soviet regime has the mass support of the workers was plain to the delegations, as indeed it must be to any sane visitor to Russia, and it is only by grasping the fundamental fact that the present regime in the U.S.S.R. is the expression of the mass will of workers and peasants, that we can get into focus a servey of the amazing developments and activities of the workers within this new State in the domain of education—education of the young to carry on the great task of building up Socialism, a task only made possible of achievement by the workers having secured *the power to do it;* and education of the mass of illiterate and politically backward members of the working class left ignorant by the years of Czarist tyranny.

Their work led the delegations to a realisation of the solid success of the great work undertaken by the workers of the U.S.S.R., to give tangible effect to what Lenin spoke of as " That mighty upheaval towards light and knowledge " set free from the masses by the Revolution. The workers of Russia realise that

education will secure for them the perpetuation of that power for which they fought so successfully. The basis of their education is the working class solidarity which won that victory. For the first time in the history of the workers, State Education and daily life are not divorced; the schools in the U.S.S.R. are of a piece with the fabric of day-to-day social and industrial life. In spite of material poverty, the educational service in Russia is throbbing with experimental and constructive intellectual activity. Russia is becoming the world's educational laboratory.

And the children! The children there are happy, happy in their freedom from the moral, physical and mental oppression of a propertied ruling class. They are free to develop; and the Report will shew how real the results of this freedom are. It was a tonic to be with the Russian children whom we met in school or camp. They always questioned their visitors vigorously, and in this connection the tiny daughter of a Moscow factory worker, whom the delegates met at the Kindergarten whilst her mother was working at the factory, must not be forgotten. In spite of the tremendous excitement of being on the point of setting out on a school visit to the Moscow "Zoo," this little girl insisted on getting an answer to her enquiry as to whether the little girls of England cleaned their teeth every day!

Work at observation was systematically shared among delegates and the results of such work discussed by the delegations. The chapters which follow are a summary of the records which were thus compiled, and confirmed and added to by the investigator.

CHAPTER I

SOCIAL CONDITIONS

In order to get into proper proportion the delegations' impressions of the Soviet educational system, it is necessary to give a very brief sketch of the Soviet system within which it works. It is necessary to recall the merciless Czarist regime which this system has replaced; its utter subjection of the working class; its denial to the peasant of access to the land and learning; the ruthless machinery of imprisonment and terrorism by which it maintained its power.

Under the Czar Russia was one of the worst educated countries in Europe. At the beginning of the century 62 per cent. of the conscript recruits to the army were illiterate. (Our own figure was 1 per cent.). Such elementary schools as existed were instruments of the bureaucracy which upheld the tyranny; high schools and universities were in the hands of the ruling class.

The Czarist regime broke down under the strain of the imperialist war and the rising discontent of the masses. Then came the Revolution. The Capitalist system in Russia was destroyed. Civil war and famine,

brought about by the capitalist blockade and intervention, followed, with their great addition to the army of vagrant children left by the old regime. It is out of this apparently hopeless chaos that the workers and peasants of Russia have evolved the machinery and organisation which are leading them successfully along the road of the construction of the first Socialist State. Over one sixth of the surface of the world they have set up the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, a closely knit federation of Workers' States.

The machinery of government within the U.S.S.R. is something new in the history of the world. The unit of power is the Soviet—the council of workers' delegates. These councils are chosen largely on an industrial basis, *i.e.,* workshop organisation; but some of the delegates are chosen upon a territorial basis, *e.g.,* peasants and housewives. Only bona fide workers can serve upon these councils. From the local and the district Soviets, the provincial and regional Soviets, through the Congresses of Soviets of each of the federated Republics, the organisation runs to the annual Congress of Soviets of the U.S.S.R. The executive committee of this body is the central organ of the Workers' authority. It will be seen that this machinery of government is quite a departure from so-called western democracy. The workers exercise absolute power over the former owing class which, as a class, is going out of existence. But the workers and peasants themselves are free ; indeed they have more than freedom—they have power. The most politically conscious and active among them, enrolled in the Communist party, give the lead to those wider cadres of workers who, through the machinery of the Soviets, administer and

govern the lives of the masses. It is a combination of these two factors, the Communist leadership plus the Workers' and Peasants' Soviet rule, which constitutes the Dictatorship of the Proletariat. If the workers and peasants of the U.S.S.R. are to achieve the final destruction of the capitalists as a class, and the final destruction of what remains of their regime and their ethics, such a dictatorship is a stern necessity. The workers accept this dictatorship because they are the dictators. It is necessary to emphasize all this in view of current misconception and misrepresentation of the phrase—" Dictatorship of the Proletariat ".

Observations on Social Conditions. Thus before we come to the report on the education service, it will be as well to give some impressions of social life as the delegates saw it, and the reader is asked to assess the results of these observations, bearing in mind the terrible disorganisation out of which the present social life has been born.

The workers of Russia have won their freedom from Capitalist oppression. A general air of happiness among them is apparent. They are like children just out of school. Everywhere is eager life and activity. The boyish jollity of the members of the E.W.U. who organised the various visits contrasted somewhat with the more sober demeanor of their guests. The Moscow deputation travelled through Poland and the contrast between the bearing of the peasants of the two countries was striking. The peasants seen near Warsaw and at the Polish frontier station were a sight for pity—they were so obviously cowed. In Russia this terrible stamp of servitude was missing.

The workers holiday-making on the Moscow River

and in the beautiful wooded country near by where many rest homes for workers are situated, reminded one of nothing so much as an English Bank Holiday crowd.

Athletics and Recreation. Workers' recreation and athletics are a great feature of national life. Some delegates paid an unofficial visit to the Moscow recreation ground of the Soviet Workers' Union Club. Every member of the Union from Commissar to office cleaner can take part in the amenities of this club on the payment of the modest subscription of about 4¾d. per month. Here were seen splendidly fit young men and women training themslves earnestly and vigorously under the best possible conditions at all sorts of outdoor exercises—including swimming and football; whilst for the more sedentary there were reading rooms, chess circles, the orchestra, an outdoor cinema, the wireless, and a well equipped library. All sorts of holiday excursions are arranged by such clubs as these.

Religion. There is no longer any State support for religion in Russia, and the Soviet power is opposed to religion, which cannot be taught to children under eighteen years of age. Yet at the same time any form of religious worship can be carried on. Churches are open daily and are being frequented by worshippers. Formerly only the orthodox religion was entirely free, other sects being more or less liable to persecution. To-day all religions are free.

Wages. Wages are rising in all trades, and in most of them they are well above the pre-war rates. In actual money they may be below our rates, but this disparity is more than counterbalanced by the privileges which the workers enjoy. Rents are low and based on

wages; food is plentiful and cheap; free social insurance is highly developed; there are free rest homes for times of sickness; amusement is very cheap. For a copper or two workers can see such films as the famous "Potemkin." The Moscow delegates visited a picture house where this film was being shown. From the point of view of artistic technique the film was excellent; its featuring of the workers' struggle was warmly applauded by the audience.

Organisation and Conditions of Teachers. The Educational Workers' Union of the U.S.S.R., with its 800,000 members is the largest and most influential teachers' organisation in the world. Its membership includes in addition to teachers of all types, school medical officers, school cleaners, workers in the organisation of education, journalists, and all workers connected in any way with education. It is one of the twenty-three industrial unions in which the workers of the Soviet are organised. It functions as an integral part of the working class movement. In this respect the Central Executive Committee thus states its policy:

> "Although in our Union we constitute an entity, we are not an isolated group of workers. We are an integral part of the working classes of the U.S.S.R. All the questions that are taken up by our Union are considered from one point of view—that our aim is the final aim of the working class as a whole."

The former all-Russian Union out of which the present Union has grown accepted the Social Democratic Government but strongly opposed the Bolsheviks. The E.W.U. was founded in its present form in July 1919, and was based upon a revolutionary organisation of teachers which had worked within the old Union.

The Moscow delegation took part in a meeting of

teachers organised by the Moscow centre of the Union. Over 600 teachers were present, many of them rural teachers attending refresher courses in the city. Great enthusiasm was shown both in the greeting given to their own Union leaders who were present, and to the members of the delegation.

The Union works in close contact with the People's Commissariat of Education; all educational legislation is carefully considered by it before it is ratified; the Commissar for Education attends the Annual Congress of the Union to make his statement and to answer questions. Yet the Union maintains its autonomy within the State, and freedom to fight for wages and conditions.

Salaries. In actual money value, the average salaries of teachers are lower than our own. In 1925-6 the average salary of the primary teacher was 48 roubles per month (pre-war 30 roubles). The rouble is roughly two shillings. The average salary of the secondary teachers was 54 roubles. But the real value of this salary is largely increased by the many valuable privileges which the Russian teacher, like his fellow worker in industry enjoys. He gets concessions regarding the education of his children; in the villages he gets free lodging, lighting, and fuel. He gets free social insurance and a non-contributory pension after twenty-five years' service. Then there are rest homes for sickness or holidays and clubs for recreation and professional refreshment. Salaries are steadily increasing. A 25 per cent. increase was granted last year to the lower paid sections, and considerable increases are planned for the next five years.* There is equal pay for men and

*Salary increases (average), since the above figures were obtained, have been as follows:—

women. Women teachers, like other women workers, have two month's holiday before and two month's holiday after childbirth on full pay.

The publishing department of the Union is developing rapidly. Russia is now the foremost country in the output of pedagogical publications. Besides the weekly newspaper with a circulation of 800,000 there are fifteen fortnightly and monthly magazines with a total circulation of 200,000, published for various sections of workers in Education.

Everywhere among teachers and workers in educational administration was found real enthusiasm for the work in hand. They and their fellow workers do not work for capitalist masters, but for themselves, and this makes all the difference. The man who knows his job has the running of his job, and work goes on at high pressure.

The Fight Against Material Poverty. Material poverty is the great enemy. The task which the workers of the U.S.S.R. have to face (without being exploited by capitalism) is the renewal and expansion of their own basic capital. A stern task, but one which they are working at successfully. The material aid which will hasten the accomplishment of this task can only be given by the workers of the rest of the world.

	1st Degree Schools	2nd Degree Schools
1926-7	37 per cent.	55 per cent.
1927-8	15.6 per cent.	22.2 per cent.

During this period credits allotted for Public Education by the State have increased 31.6 million roubles for towns and 98.4 per cent. for rural districts. (See December issue of "*The Teachers' International*," monthly organ of the Educational Workers' International: "Report on World Teachers' Movements and Educational Policy," by Mr. Apletin, Secretary of the E.W.I.).

CHAPTER II

ORGANISATION OF EDUCATION

The material for this section of the Report was mainly gathered at an interview between the delegation and the People's Commissariat for Education at Moscow. The delegation was received by M. Mansura (Chairman of the Council of National Minorities), Professor Khodorosky (who deputised for M. Lunacharsky, People's Commissar for Education), and other officials of Narcompross (The People's Commissariat for Education).

The delegates were struck by the unfailing courtesy and patience with which their numerous questions were answered, and by the fraternal spirit in which these men and women, engaged in the work of building up and administering the educational machine of the largest country in the world, received a body of rank and file teachers.

Educational Administration. In the sphere of education the various component Republics of the U.S.S.R. have fairly complete autonomy. According to its constitution the U.S.S.R., the central authority,

has within its competence " the establishment of the general principles in the domain of Education."

Thus the central Commissariat for education has to allocate the proportion of the State Budget to the component Republics; it has to work in contact with the central Trade Union Executive and the central executive bodies of the Communist Party, the Young Communist League, and the Co-operatives, all of which organisations carry on, in conjunction with Narcompross, widespread educational activities; and through its State Scientific Council—a committee of experts appointed from among the teachers, with that appointment ratified by the Educational Workers' Trade Union—it sees to the drafting of the general outlines of the curricula to be followed, and to the establishment of the general educational principles to be observed.

In order to follow this outline of educational administration the reader must bear in mind the general form of Soviet administration already briefly described. The People's Commissariat for Education for any of the Republics is chosen by the Congress of Soviets of that Republic and is responsible to its Executive Committee. Each collegium or Education Board, is appointed by the Council of People's Commissars, the Cabinet of each of the various Republics. The Soviets of the large towns, and each district, provincial, and regional Soviet has its education department. The aim here is to draw large numbers of rank and file workers into the administration of education, and owing to the close connection between the Soviets and the various units of Trade Union, Co-operative and Political organisation, this aim is being successfully pursued.

Outline of School System.

Whilst of course the system of educational institutions is necessarily diverse in its nature, and in some cases of a makeshift character during the rapid growth in the present transitional period when the primary vital need is the building up of heavy industry and large-scale State and collective farms, nevertheless this general outline holds good. It must also be remembered that compulsory education is not yet in force.

1. *Pre-school Education.* For children aged from 3 to 7 or 8 in kindergartens and nursery schools. Children of more tender years are cared for in creches whilst their mothers are at work, such as the one attached to a Moscow boot factory which the delegates visited. Here, too, the expectant or nursing mother can receive expert information and treatment. The total number of kindergartens and creches on 1st December, 1926, was 1,629 with 85,349 infants attached.

2. *The Unified Labour School.* This school forms the foundation of the whole plan of the school system. It is based on social education for pupils aged 8 to 15 or 17 years. The school is so called because there is no severance between elementary and secondary education, and because the instruction is based on the fundamental doctrine that labour is the centre of all educational activity. It is divided into grades, the first for children from 8 to 11 or 12, the second for pupils from 11-12 onwards. At the age of 14 or 15 many gifted pupils begin to specialise* and

*See end of page 35, and top of page 36 (Grade II. schools).

most of them go to either the *Factory, or Technical, Peasant, or Professional School.*

Co-education is general throughout the system. The aim of this series of schools is to train the skilled workers, the technicians and directors of which the developing industry and agriculture are in such need.

3. *High Schools and Universities.* At the age of 17 or thereabouts young workers who are fitted for it may take up a University course.

4. *Care of Destitute Children.* Schools for destitute children are an important part of the organisation. The misrepresentation and scurrility of the capitalist press in regard to the U.S.S.R. seem to be concentrated on this part of the Soviet's work. The problem of dealing with these children is being courageously and effectively handled. Full particulars and an account of a visit to a special school for such children will be given later in the Report.

5. *Adult Education.* The legacy of illiteracy left by the Czardom makes this a most important branch of Soviet educational work. There is the great fight against illiteracy waged by the workers, who use for their weapons (*a*) *The School for Illiterates,* (*b*) *The School for Political Education,* and what is perhaps the most striking of the Soviet educational institutions, (*c*) *The Rabfac, or Worker's Faculty,* which provides Secondary courses for workers and peasants prevented by circumstances from entering the High Schools or Universities through the usual channels.

6. *The National Minorities.* The Czarist regime deliberately suppressed all use of national non-Russian languages, not only in the case of small national groups, but even among nationalities with a long history and

a rich literature like the Poles, the Ukrainians, and the Armenians. The Revolution reversed this process. The more than one hundred nationalities were given full autonomy in educational matters, and as a result, educational growth has in many cases been little short of miraculous. In more than forty areas the Soviet had to invent alphabets, and in all but five or six of these the Roman Characters had to be adopted because Greek (Russian) characters would have been a reminder and a symbol of Czarist oppression. The occasion of the issuing of the first printed book in each language is declared a public holiday. The delegation was shewn very many brightly illustrated posters in various Arabic and Mongolian scripts which had been issued in large numbers among these national minorities. Where possible, the attempt is made (this is the rule in the Ukraine) to teach Russian as a second language, but in no case is this obligatory.

7. *Museums and Art Galleries.* The Commissariats for Education control the scientific institutions, museums and art galleries. The use of these is considered an important part of public education. In the Darwin Museum attached to the Moscow Second University the delegates met a party of peasants from a far distant region of Siberia, making a lecture tour of the museum. At the picture gallery visited by the delegation, excellent educational facilities exist. Many working people joined with the delegates when the pictures were being discussed with the help of a most effective woman guide.

8. *The State Publishing House.* Enquiries as to text books revealed the enormous State publishing activities. The State Publishing House is probably the

largest single publishing organisation in the world. We saw on all hands the direct share played by individual teachers and teachers' organisations in the production of text books for all grades of education. Some of the delegates were of the opinion that too much attention was devoted to the views of individual teachers, or groups of teachers, in the sense that it seemed enough for a teacher to have views on a certain matter to cause the State to put those views into print. Two things prevent this unlimited expression from having somewhat chaotic results; first, the pitiless self-analysis which accompanies all discussions in the Soviet; and second, the frequent educational conferences held all over the Union which draw very large numbers of rank and file teachers into discussion and serve as a unifying medium for the whole profession.

9. *Military Education.* The Red Army is looked upon as a huge educational institution, and illiteracy among the soldiers is rapidly being abolished. The education given to the soldiers (who have their political rights and take part freely in social life) aims not at creating militarist and nationalist ideas but at training good defenders of the Revolution. When it is remembered that the figure for illiteracy in the pre-war Russian army was 62 per cent. as compared with one twentieth per cent for the German Army, and knowing that the percentage for the Red Army for 1925 had been reduced to about 10 per cent. it will be seen that great progress is being made.

10. *Cinemas and Theatres.* The education authorities exercise a large measure of control over the cinema, the wireless and theatres, all of which are national property. The delegation, both from the

information gathered at the interview and from their own observations in theatres, cinemas, etc., had numerous occasions of seeing how the growing artistic life of the workers is freely expressing itself through these media. The official presiding referred dryly to the fact that the films in the U.S.S.R. were supervised by the education authorities and not by the police as in capitalist countries. This supervision does not mean that films, plays, etc. are stereotyped; on the contrary an enormous variety of themes are treated. Already many schools have wireless clubs and children's theatres, the apparatus in most cases being made by the children themselves. There are also special Children's Theatres, run *for* children.*

11. *The Training of Teachers.* This is the most difficult job facing the educational authorities of the Soviet. The pre-war system has been abolished. There are two kinds of training schools:—The Technicum for the training of elementary teachers, and the Institutes or the Pedagogical Faculties of the Universities for the teachers in higher grades. The students in general take an active part in social work in their districts. The course is a four-year one for all grades of students. There are 118 institutions for the training of teachers in the Russian Socialist Federal Soviet Republic alone. In them are 31,000 students. During 1926-7 about 8,000 will graduate, but these are not sufficient to meet the demand.

The delegation stated that they had met a number of teachers who had been in the profession before the

*The Moscow Children's Theatre, founded by Nathalie Satz, must be one of the finest educational institutions of its kind to be found anywhere. Nearly 150,000 children visited it in 1926-27.

war, who found the new system difficult to assimilate. The reply was that this difficulty was being met by bringing these teachers into the social life of the country, overcoming in this way their lack of social knowledge. A system of refresher courses had also been found effective.

12. *The Inspectorate.* Inspectors are appointed from among the teachers by the authorities in consultation with the Educational Workers' Union. The Inspectors do not exercise pressure upon the teaching body; they are members of the same Union as the teachers and are looked upon by the teachers as expert technical instructors and friendly advisers rather than inspectors as known in England. One University has a special faculty for the training of inspectors. The year 1924-5 was the first year of unhampered educational work in Soviet Russia. From 1924 to 1925 the number of first grade schools in the Russian Socialist Federal Soviet Republic (R.S.F.S.R.), the most important of the united Republics, increased by 11 per cent. (from 46,071 to 51,180), while the percentage of those seeking education increased by 39 per cent. (from 2,761,000 to 3,811,000). Of the Education Budget of that year 80 per cent. was devoted to education in the villages, and there was an increase in educational expenditure of 48 million roubles in 1924 and of 124 million roubles in 1925. Of the total Budget, 26 per cent. was spent on education, the greater part of the increase being absorbed by increases in salaries and the rest by school building. By the first of December, 1926, the total number of educational institutions of all kinds in the Republic had grown to 82,861, with 7,567,611 children attached.

The demands of the peasants for school buildings cannot yet be anything like fully met, and the introduction of general compulsory education has had to be postponed. In some localities the local communities took it upon themselves to build schools; in some cases a double shift is being worked in the schools. For the first time five million roubles was assigned for the provision of free textbooks, stationery, etc. In 1926-7 the poorest children will be provided with free clothing and footwear. The total educational expenditure of the R.S.F.S.R. is over 244 million roubles, and educational expenditure per head has risen from 1 rouble 74 copeks in 1923-4 to 2 roubles 54 copeks in 1924-5, and 3 roubles 72 copeks in 1926-7. Finally, in taking pre-war with present educational expenditure in the R.S.F.S.R. (taking 1913 figures as 100 per cent.), we find that the figures for 1923-4 amount to 80 per cent., for 1924-5 to 113 per cent. and for 1925-6 to 143 per cent.

Figures for U.S.S.R. The growth of public education in the U.S.S.R. is shown by a study of the following table taken from the book: "*Ten Years of Soviet Power in Figures*," published by the Central Statistical Board of the U.S.S.R.

UNIFIED LABOUR SCHOOL

Year	1st Grade & 7-year Schools.		2nd Grade & 9-year Schools.	
	No. of Schools	Pupils (thous.)	No. of Schools	Pupils (thous.)
1914-5	104,610	7,236	1,790	565
1921-2	99,396	7,916	3,137 (many small provisional centres)	520
1926-7*	108,424	9,903	1,708	785

*Latest figures available for the whole U.S.S.R.

Year	Technicums (Jun. & Sen. Prof. Schools).		Universities.	
	Institutions.	Pupils (thous.)	Institutions.	Pupils (thous.)
1914-5	2,877	267	91	125
1921-2	4,025	325	278	224
1926-7	5,002	588	138	163

Year	Schools for Illiterates.		Adults Schools and Workers' Universities.	
1914-5	—	—	—	—
1921-2	17,987	456	443	37
1926-7	46,826	1,517	888	105

Year	Rabfacs.		Communist Universities, Party Training Schools, and Study Circles.	
	Institutions.	Stud'ts (thous.)	Institutions.	Stud'ts (thous.)
1914-5	—	—	—	—
1921-2	85	27	180	14
1926-7	109	46	10,317	303

Year	Public Libraries.		Cottage Reading Rooms.	Clubs, etc.
	Members.	Institutions.		
1914-5	—	—	—	—
1921-2	17,058	5,515	16,799	7,394
1926-7	19,275	5,975	22,125	10,339

Totals of Educational Institutions and Persons Attached (1st December, 1926).

	Institutions	Persons Attached
Schools of all kinds for juveniles	114,786	11,007,941
Professional & Technical Institutions	5,247	797,290
Political Educational Centres (Adults)	58,031	1,925,110
Libraries, Clubs, Reading Rooms People's and Peasants' Houses	51,739	—

Party Status of Teachers and Assistants in the Schools of U.S.S.R. (1st December, 1926).

No. of Institutions	No. of Teachers	Mem.&Cand. (Commun.)	Mem.&Cand. (Y.C.L.)	Total Commun.	Per cent. Commun. to Total Teachers
93,971	260,139	11,899	14,525	26,424	10·2

The State Expenditure on Public Education in the U.S.S.R. Constituted:

In 1922-3, 3 per cent. of the Budget.
,, 1923-4, 3.9 per cent. of the Budget (plus a sum which was raised locally of 148,625,000 gold Rs.
,, 1925-6 there was spent on Education 280·5 million roubles.
,, 1926-7 there was spent on Education 290 million roubles.

Conclusion. The delegation left the Commissariat feeling deeply impressed with the sense of power and activity in the directing organ of Soviet education. Educational measures were here being planned and put into operation on a vast scale. It was plain that the men and women who received the delegates were living for the work which they were doing and that this great work was going forward in the simple spirit of working class comradeship.

CHAPTER III

THE THEORY BEHIND SOVIET EDUCATION

The Revolution has brought about a fundamental change in education in Russia, a change which cannot be appreciated here unless educationists know something of the aims of Soviet pedagogy, and of the theory and principles determining the methods by which these aims are being secured.

Back of all educational theory in the U.S.S.R. are the teachings of Marx and Engels, Darwin and Dietzgen, with Lenin's deductions and additions—a mighty contribution tested by experience and in the fires of action. In this short account we must assume that our readers know the elements of these teachings or are willing to acquaint themselves with them.[1]

As thought is a function of sensory and mental relations so is education a function of economic and political relations. In a class society (*i.e.*, in the capitalist world) education is therefore a class education, a system of national instruction reflecting and rein-

[1]See Bibliography, page 80.

forcing the ideas of the class ruling each nation. The history of education proves this; and it will remain so until Socialism is established, not in one or two national groups only, but throughout the world. This is frankly applied in Russia because it is clearly understood, and the abolition of parties avoids pretences for camouflaging it. Russian education is working-class education because the workers are in power and rule, and this general principle is behind all the basic ideas of education and public instruction in the U.S.S.R.

The ultimate ideal is to build a Socialist organisation of life out of which a Communist society shall arise. What then are the immediate aims of Russia's pedagogues in their journeying towards this ideal?

The aims are to bring up Soviet citizens, *i.e.*, human beings with the psychology and ideas of workers who will be active, self-reliant and confident fighters for these ideas, and who can be called upon to build up and defend Socialism in Russia and to support their fellow-workers in the rest of the world struggling to overcome capitalism and imperialism.

Now we come to the educational deductions to be made from this. First, education is based on work or physical labour. Methods of learning are through doing. Work becomes the "universal shaft around which all instruction and education rotate," as Professor Pinkevitch puts it. Life and livelihood depend on work. Hence the schools and other educational institutions are brought into the closest contact with the life of the people round them and with industrial production. Mutual aid and inter-relations between school and factory, or mine or farm, between town and country, between Russia and the rest of the world

are essential. Teachers and scholars study primarily the work activities and life of the workers or peasants in a locality, a district, then in a province, a region, a Republic, in the whole U.S.S.R. and the world.

Secondly, from pre-school onwards, curricula are constructed on a three-fold basis. (1) Natural phenomena of one's environment; (2) Man's work with and against nature to control and use it; (3) The social characteristics that result, and the relation or connection between these three categories. (This relation is the " complex principle " so commonly spoken of in Soviet pedagogy). Knowledge is thus unified, *not* a confusion of " subjects."

Thirdly, it follows that children and teachers take part as workers in collective activity of all kinds. Co-education is general. The ability to work collectively requires that from the beginning children shall be moulded to a Socialist attitude to life and one another, and be imbued with Communist ideas. This means that they must have a clear understanding of the political conditions of their own country and other countries, a scientific (realistic) international, not national, conception of life; and lastly, they must be able to apply this knowledge so as to work socially with their fellows in their surroundings from the earliest school years, and against anti-working-class or unsocial behaviour.

What does this imply as regards the duties of Soviet teachers? It means using methods that encourage the maximum self activity, initiative and self discipline, and which develop the natural capacities of every child. The Project Plan and the Dalton Laboratory Plan with the " complex principle ", are almost universally introduced. The teachers become guides and advisers,

trying to lead the children both in lessons and in school administration into conditions of freedom, so as to create the qualities necessary for Soviet citizens. The marriage of theory with practice becomes most essential. As Shatsky puts it, " any valuable idea grasped by the child should prompt it to act in a manner accessible to the child." Obviously, the atmosphere and methods of schools based on compulsion, obedience and " examinitis " are not fit for training fighters and builders in the cause of Socialism. The world conception, which is of course the conception of all true Socialists, requires teachers able to approach religion, nationalism, chauvinism, and sentimental idealism from the scientific materialist standpoint so as to rid minds of religious, national and sentimental prejudices and bigotry. Russian educationists give scholars a clear conception of the fundamental economic urge determining the development of modern class society and those forces which are constructing a truly humane and just society (*i.e.*, communist) on its ruins. Hence is inculcated the consciousness of solidarity with all workers the world over, irrespective of creed, culture, or colour; the readiness to fight for one's working class ideas; and the capacity to erect rationally and systematically a world federation of socialist republics.

Allowing for the fact that this conception is antagonistic to all capitalist States and enemies of Communism, and that those States constitute five-sixths of a world of bitter class conflicts and imperialist rivalries, the class education of Russia is in essence as near universally human as is possible in the present transition period. It is in the interests of 95 per cent. of the population. It is certainly democratic, providing enlightenment for

one and all. The poorer the child the better chance it gets. Naturally it is not yet one hundred per cent. efficient or widespread, but the Russian authorities are earnestly trying as nowhere else in the world to make it so. The expenditure for social and cultural services for 1926-7 was 1,800 million roubles. Judging by results so far attained, by the steady advance made through the vast experimental work being done, and by the improvements being applied, the authorities have reason to believe that their theories and methods are of the best.

CHAPTER IV

THE PRACTICE OF SOVIET EDUCATION

I. PRE-SCHOOL

As has already been pointed out, the care of the child from conception to the age of eight years comes under the category of pre-school education. This work is carried on in the creche with its motherhood clinic, at the maternity hospital such as the Mother and Child Institutes at Leningrad and Moscow, or in the kindergarten and infant schools, which are usually attached to a factory.

After a brief summary of the position of pre-school education, accounts will be given of visits to typical pre-school institutions.

Great importance is attached to the work of pre-school education by the People's Commissariat of Education. Every effort is therefore made, through Soviet, Trade Union and Co-operative units of organisation to get the broad masses of workers and peasants to interest themselves in this work and to take part in carrying it out.

Prior to the Revolution, pre-school work was on a very small scale, and such schools as existed were run

by voluntary organisations. It was only during the imperialist war, when the number of homeless children grew to an alarming extent, that pre-school institutions began to arise on the initiative of public bodies. By 1921 the number of such institutions reached its highest point, there being then 7,784. Since that time, largely owing to sabotage of credit and trade facilities by world capitalism, compelling Russia to divert every possible penny of capital into the building up of industry, a big reduction in the number of these schools has been forced. At present about 20 per cent. of pre-school children are being catered for.

Recently there has been an undoubted growth of permanent pre-schools, as well as an extension of the network of summer pre-school institutions in rural areas.

The Creche attached to the Stephen Khalturin Factory, Leningrad. This factory employs over 6,000 workers, many of whom are women. The creche provides for children between the ages of two months and eight years. The mother in the U.S.S.R. gets two months off duty before the birth of the child, and two months after the birth, both periods with full pay.

Ninety per cent. of the children whose mothers work in the factory are brought to this creche. It is in charge of a woman physician who is expert in educational methods and the psychology of young children.

On arrival in the morning, baby has a bath and a change of clothing, his home clothes being put away in his own locker. The neatness and cleanliness of this home-clothing struck the delegates. At suitable periods during the day, the nursing mother is freed from the factory to come to feed the baby, and when

she comes she finds a special meal ready for her. Before mother enters the creche, she has to put on white overalls. (The delegates had to do this too, and the clerical aspect which they assumed was striking!). The rooms are light and airy, with polished floors. Each tot has its own cot, and its own bath towel, sponge, tooth brush, and bath cloth, together with the essential bib and napkin. Near these articles there is put up for him/her an identifying picture of his/her own—a bear or tiger, etc.—so that he/she soon gets to know where his/her belongings "live." There are bath rooms with large and small baths, hot and cold water and sprays. From two years onwards, the children are trained to wash themselves before and after each meal.

Babies of from two to four months and those of from four to six months have separate rooms. After six months they go to larger rooms where there are play pens and shallow stairs for equilibrium practice. The rooms are furnished with small tables and chairs of varying sizes, light in build so that they can easily be moved out of doors in suitable weather.

Children of from three to eight years get the usual infant school training. From two and a half years there is individual sense training with suitable apparatus. As early as possible the little ones work in groups. Specimens of their written work were seen, and this was equal on the whole to that of English children at the same age.

There are 90 children between the ages of three and eight with eleven teachers. All these are college trained, with a specialist knowledge of child welfare work. History charts of each child are kept.

A SCENE FROM "PUNCH AND JUDY," PRODUCED BY KORITSKY IN THE MOSCOW CHILDREN'S THEATRE. *Page* 59

SOME TINY TOTS IN A LENINGRAD FACTORY CRECHE

Excellent educational advice is given to mothers. Much of this is done by means of very clever posters, which " hit the mother in the eye " with their message of hygiene. The chubby healthy children seen in this creche were sound evidence as to the effectiveness of its work.

The Institute of Mother and Child, Leningrad. This is a maternity and children's hospital where medical care is given to the mother before, during and after the birth of the child. It is financed jointly by the Leningrad Soviet, The National Board of Health, and the National Social Insurance. Out of 657 beds there are 100 for women, and all these were full. Treatment is free to all women covered by Social Insurance. There are departments for dealing with preventive work, venereal disease, and the diseases of women; there is a clinic, and a centre for dealing with birth control.

Women attend the hospital during their pregnancy, and they enter two months before the birth of the child. No question as to marriage is raised in connection with the entry into hospital. Lectures are given on such subjects as bathing, clothing, and feeding the child. Here again are seen striking posters. The humour of the one dealing with indigestion and of picture post-cards with babies " Demands " thereon appealed to the delegates. Kitchen demonstrations in food preparation are given.

There are 650 beds for children, most of whom are under treatment for illness. In a separate building there are thirty children of from one to three years of age, and for these there are four teachers. Much of the sense apparatus used is designed and made in the

educational laboratory of the hospital. Doctors, nurses and teachers attend demonstrations given here, so that medical and educational work go forward hand in hand.

There is open air treatment for tuberculous children. In the isolation ward each patient is screened off by glass, so that although there is complete isolation, there is no sense of loneliness.

This institute appeared to be conducted along the most progressive scientific lines under a remarkably able staff; but its orderliness had not eliminated human feeling, and one of the attractions of the institution was the sense of friendliness and sympathy which was extended to all officials, patients, children and visitors.

The "Apiary" Kindergarten, Moscow. This Kindergarten, which is housed in a former large private house with extensive garden situated in a working-class area of the city, is attached to a sewing factory. It represents the average type of Kindergarten. The children were found in the garden about to depart on a visit to the Zoo. They were lightly clothed, and looked delightfully brown and chubby. They were very interested in their games, and seemed quite unconcerned at the approach of their guests.

The delegation was received by one of the staff, who conveyed greetings on behalf of Russia's Educational Workers. Every room in the building was visited, the teacher guides talking the while with interest of the work being done, and readily answering the numerous questions. In the rooms were the usual graduated tables and chairs, but the rest of the equipment had been made in the school. The handicap of poor material equipment was being overcome here as in all the schools by the keenness and resource of teacher

and pupil in making "something out of nothing."

There were fifty-five pupils, organised in three groups. On the double shift system—the children's hours are from 7.30 a.m. to 5 p.m.—each group had two mistresses.

Such a beginning to education as that provided mainly by fairy tales is scorned in this school. Stories must interpret real life. From the very first the school life is connected with mother's work in the factory. With stamps off the cotton reels, the older pupils had arranged the motto on their red banner:—

"We Don't Eat Bread from the Factory for Nothing. We Give Dresses in Return."

The making of this banner had formed the subject of much useful work. Its origin lay in a visit paid by the children to a camp of peasant children. Here it was discovered that dresses from the factory were as necessary to the peasant as food from the fields for father and mother in the town. Around this theme of the interdependence of peasant and worker a simple ballad had been built up, and this was made a school song.

Another banner bore specimens of the clothing made in the factory, the improvement in factory technique, with its accompanying rise in wages being noted in the motto: "After the Revolution We Sew Better." Other appropriate mottoes made from the cloth from the factory decorated the rooms.

This school is linked up with the Radischeff Pioneers' Camp. The Pioneers act as big brothers to the tots. The top group of children hoped shortly to become Octobrists, that is, members of the preparatory organisation to the Pioneers.

As in all institutions visited, the Wall Newspaper was prominent. Here, daintily and strikingly arranged, were pictures of Djershinsky (he had just died), Rykoff, Lunarcharsky, and Sun Yat Sen.

Regular conferences for parents are held, at which questions of health and diet are gone into. Charts dealing with such matters as these were on the walls. Another chart enables parents to see how their child spends the day. This is a copy of the time table. The children arrive at about 7.30 a.m. and by 8 a.m. registers are marked. Breakfast is ready by 9 a.m. and work follows till 10.30, when organised games commence, lasting till midday. The babies have their dinner now, followed by the elder ones at 12.30 p.m. Attention to personal hygiene, especially the cleaning of the teeth, occupies from 1 till 2.30 when the children all go to bed to sleep. Tea is prepared by 4 p.m., a choice between tea and milk being given. Games follow till the parents call for their little folk soon after 5 p.m.

All domestic work except scrubbing, cooking and washing, is done by children and teachers. For this purpose the children work in organised groups, each with its allotted task. The elder and middle groups mark their own attendance registers, which are affixed to the walls.

At first the school was organised for the upper and middle groups only, but the parents realised the value of the school, and they equipped and now support the accommodation for the three year olds. The upkeep of the rest of the school is borne by the Commissariat of Education.

There was a play corner with Montessori and other

toys. The school medical chest had been made by the pupils. Following on a visit to the factory, when they noticed how many buttons lay about the floor where mother was working, they began making button boxes for the factory.

It will be seen that the whole of the work of the school is related to the factory, to personal and domestic hygiene, and so to the effective bettering of society. " The three R's " are acquired incidentally, as a means to the realisation of this end.

The teacher who showed the delegation round, in reply to a question as to whether she was a member of the Communist Party, said that she was not a member, and when asked if she supported the present Government, replied :—

" We non-party teachers, in conveying our greetings to non-party teachers in England, wish to say that only when you have realised the revolutionary change of ' All power to the workers ' can these things you see here be universal. We had nothing of this before the Revolution, but we are free now. We are helped and encouraged to do our utmost; and therefore we feel bound to support the Revolution and the Soviet Government. May the workers soon rule in England !"

As the delegates left the Kindergarten with some of the joyously healthy little ones taking their hands, the quiet conviction of these words spoken by one who with her colleagues had carried on her day-to-day duties through counter-revolution, civil war and famine, coupled with the unmistakable signs shewn by the happy children of the success of their efforts, made the delegates feel that in this school, in spite of its paucity of equipment and its homely location, real creative

work was going forward in an atmosphere of happy freedom.

II.—THE UNIFIED LABOUR SCHOOL.

In the chapter on the organisation of education a brief description was given of the Unified Labour School. This school is divided into two grades; Grade I. Schools comprise the age groups 8 to 11 or 12; Grade II. Schools those from 11/12 to 17.

The Grade I. School. The aim of the Grade I. School is to teach children to read, write and reckon, and such elements of science as will give them, within the limits of their age and faculties, a correct understanding of their surroundings, that is, of human labour, of natural phenomena, and of public life, the inter-connection between these three categories constituting the " complex principle " so important in Soviet education.

School Number 33, Moscow. The working methods of a Grade I. School may best be studied by a visit to such a school. A member of the delegation visited this school towards the end of September when full activity had been resumed after the summer vacation. It is just an ordinary primary school; that is why it was chosen for a visit. The head mistress of the school was surprised at the visit, and she pointed out that her school was by no means a " show school."

No. 33 is housed in a big building not originally intended for a school. It contains large rooms well adapted for class room work. Equipment is adequate, and there are plenty of modern text-books. Teaching is based on the " complex system," and is carried out by the laboratory method. That is to say the separate

subjects as usually taught in our schools are dealt with as necessary to the working out of some main theme or complex, and this theme is worked out along laboratory lines, the pupils experimenting and investigating their way to a grasp of the complex or bit of life chosen for study. Some examples will serve to make this clear. The theme for one class was "Trade." A group of five pupils visited the co-operative store; similar groups visited private traders. These groups reported the results of their investigations to the whole class. These were tabulated, and illustrative diagrams were made. Another class was studying the relation between town and rural life. This class, following similar investigations, had made models shewing what the country gives the town and what the town gives the country. In connection with the study of primitive man, another class was to visit the very fine Historical Museum on the Red Square. Here again the pupils would work in small groups which would later report to the whole class, so that summaries, diagrams and models concerning the investigations could be made.

In arithmetic and reading, drawing is largely used to enable pupils to make a beginning. Writing precedes reading.

Size of Classes. The maximum size of classes in Moscow is forty for normal and thirty for backward children. In this school there is only one class of forty, and most of the classes average 30. All classes are mixed. Owing to shortage of accommodation the school is run on the two shift principle, the pupils coming in the afternoon being somewhat older than those attending in the morning. The bulk of the pupils are children of metal workers. For the first

three years teachers go up with their classes. In the fourth year the work is divided among specialist teachers. It was hoped that laboratories would soon be available for this work. After the fourth year many of the pupils carry on their training in the factory schools; others stay on at No. 33 for a longer period.

Self-Government. Each class elects its discipline committee, and one delegate from each of these committees serves on the central discipline committee. Two members of the central committee serve on the school pedagogical committee; that is, they have a say in dealing with questions concerning the syllabus and the general arrangements of the school. Each class elects a small committee to deal with such matters as hygiene, care of the room, etc. A girl of nine was seen ably conducting the election of her class hygiene committee.

Small faults in behaviour are dealt with by the children. In more serious cases the teacher, or, finally, the parent is called in; such cases were, however, seldom referred to the parents, as it is found that they are liable to deal too severely with the pupil. As a final punishment, a child may be expelled and transferred to another school; but this is rarely necessary.

The teachers said that there was little trouble on the score of discipline, and they were surprised at being questioned so persistently about it. There is no corporal punishment,* and the fact that the cane is still used or threatened in most schools in England, was evidently regarded as a survival of barbarism.

In all the classes visited, the children behaved natur-

*All corporal punishment is forbidden by law, and teachers have been expelled for merely slapping children.

A DRAWING LESSON, SCHOOL COMMUNE OF NARCOMPROSS OF WHICH PISTRAK IS HEAD. SPECIMENS OF THE SCHOLARS' WORK ARE SHOWN ON CUPBOARD AND WALLS.

A MEETING OF THE YOUNG COMMUNIST LEAGUE NUCLEUS IN A LARGE MOSCOW UNIFIED LABOUR SCHOOL.

ally; there was no forcing of attention and no apparent "being on best behaviour for a visitor."

Many of the children belong to such organisations as the I.C.W.P.A. and the Friends of the Children (the Workers' N.S.P.C.C.). Members of this organisation were helping to run a rural school for homeless children, and some of them had gone out into the country to attend a conference. Many of the children were pioneers, and these took the lead in the work of self-government. During the visit, a member of the parents' committee was going round the classes.

The teachers were surprised to hear about the great amount of clerical work imposed upon English teachers. Registers are kept on the walls by the pupils, and a bi-annual summary of these has to be rendered. The syllabus comes through from the State Scientific Council, and meetings of teachers are held for the purpose of discussing its adaptation to the schools. It was clear that the teachers appreciated these free working conditions, and they were evidently keenly interested in their work. All the work of the school, both that of teachers and pupils, was characterised by an atmosphere of freedom.

Grade II. Schools. The Grade II. School is divided into two sections, the first three years forming one section, and the last two years forming the other section. The aim of the first sub-section is to give its pupils a complete knowledge of human labour activity as a whole, of the social organisation of mankind and of the elements of the laws of nature and of public life, so as to help the scholar to become a conscious citizen of the Soviet State. The aim of the second sub-section is to train a mass of conscious qualified workers for

certain branches of labour. This vocational bias of the second sub-section was found to be absolutely necessary as a temporary measure due to labour cultural backwardness, although the Commissariat of Education considers that the choice of vocation should not be made before the age of seventeen.

The Radishchev Experimental Demonstration School, Moscow. This is an example of the Unified Labour School of the nine years type. It is situated in an industrial district of Moscow. There are 640 children in attendance, 400 of whom live in boarding houses attached to the school, the remainder being day pupils. It is the Grade II. part of the work—what we should term secondary—that will be more particularly dealt with here. The school is experimenting on this second grade curriculum. In principle the project plan is adopted, and it is found fairly simple to work in Grade I.; but in Grade II. where specialist teachers are needed no completely satisfactory plan has yet been arrived at. In general the method of work here is a combination of the " project " and the " laboratory " plans. Two or three themes of wide scope, and generally of a sociological nature, are provided in the syllabus for each year. From these, partial themes are derived for each subject. Social, industrial, and technical matter connected with these are provided for research in the laboratories. Later, the theoretical work assimilated in each special subject is considered and systematised. Finally, conclusions and suggestions regarding the main theme are worked out, and a general collective report is made. The completion of such a report is made the occasion of some special school celebration. The syllabus in each subject is worked out under the five following headings:—

A MOSCOW UNIFIED LABOUR SCHOOL

MOSCOW WORKERS' CLUB LIFE: A NEWSPAPER CORNER

1. Name of general theme.	2. Partial themes for given subject.	3. Industrial technical social material connected with theme for research and laboratory work.	4. Theoretical matter assimilated in given subject.	5. General conclusion and suggestions.

As the school is in an industrial district it is given an industrial bias. In the first sub-section of the Grade II. School social and industrial work centres round the carpenters' and locksmiths' shops. Work begins in special workshops, where children acquire the technology of the materials, and learn the use of all kinds of tools. Then in the special laboratories for general knowledge, they study on the basis of the knowledge obtained in the workshops. If for example, they have been occupied in the carpenter's shop and are acquainted with the technology of wood, in the special laboratory they will now study the physiology and morphology of plants. In the workshops some form of " socially useful labour " is always tackled. Wooden articles and toys for the children in the peasant playground were being made, and some very fine needlework was being done by the girls. Much collective work is done; a stool, for example, may have been made by several pupils, the more advanced doing the more difficult parts of the job. Girls as well as boys work in the carpenters' and the metal workshops; it is not obligatory for the girls to complete the locksmith's course, but a few of them go on for the whole time. The girls' carpentry work compared very

favourably with that done by the boys. The shops were large and well equipped.

In the second sub-section of the Grade II. School, the pupils become acquainted with industrial work by observing workers in the factory and by doing social work amongst them. Visits are made to the factory, where work and conditions are examined. Much cultural work is done in the factory in this way, the children bringing culture to the factory workers. Students from the higher group become leaders on education in the political circles; others work on the liquidation of illiteracy and on wall newspapers. Younger pupils work in the factory library. The school has a fine library of 30,000 books, and the children recommend books on various problems to the factory workers. As their own technical education is usually higher than that of the young workers in the factories, students from the school become leaders in wireless, chemical and aeroplane circles.

Close connection is maintained between the school and two metallurgical factories in the Urals 3,000 versts away. That year two groups of pupils had paid visits lasting between forty and fifty days to these factories.

The School Camp. The school was not in session, but about a hundred of the pupils were staying in the school summer camp in wooded country outside the city. They were comfortably housed in wooden buildings.

The headmistress of the school was in charge of the camp, but most of the routine organising day-to-day work was being efficiently carried out by a handful of Pioneers. The delegates enjoyed a wholesome and

PUPILS OF A MOSCOW SCHOOL IN CAMP. THE RISING GENERATION IS BEING TAUGHT TO CULTIVATE THE VAST STRETCHES OF FERTILE SOIL BY CO-OPERATIVE FARMING

substantial midday meal with the children, and all the work of getting the meal served, etc., was carried out by these able young people. They took charge of a most inspiring camp parade at which the Red Flag was saluted, songs were sung, and speeches of welcome made and replied to. The delegates were much struck by the thoroughness and skill with which one of their number, a girl of sixteen or so, was conducting all the incidental work in connection with a medical inspection which the camp doctor was carrying out.

A good example of the social work done by the Pioneers was seen in the game which another girl was organising to entertain and instruct the peasant children who had responded to an invitation to visit the camp. The little children were lined up on two sides to play the game, " Workers *v.* Fascists." The great difficulty was, the delegates were told, to get any of the children to fight for the Fascists once they understood the meaning behind the game!

Conclusion. The reader must bear in mind that the work of this school is largely experimental. The attempt is being made, with what success the reader must try to judge, to get away from that stifling, purely academic atmosphere characteristic of the average English secondary school. The aim is to turn out efficient workers in industry, who shall at the same time gain a sufficiently wide cultural outlook to enable them to organise politically in order that they may become effective agents in the work of the Soviets. Thus, whilst the training is by no means entirely vocational, yet the close coupling up of the school with industry, makes school life real to the pupils, and avoids that bleak divorce of school life from social life which too often holds good in England.

CHAPTER V

THE PRACTICE OF SOVIET EDUCATION (*continued*)

III. HIGHER EDUCATION

When dealing with this branch of Education in the U.S.S.R., for the title " Higher Education " we might quite well substitute " Vocational Training." To the majority of teachers and workers in education in England, this question of Vocational Training seems to be well-nigh incapable of solution; for whether such teachers and educationists understand the implications of the class struggle or no, they cannot reconcile themselves to the flinging of the pupils—for whom in school they have endeavoured to create something like a happy environment—into the maw of the ruthless machine of monopolist industry. In the U.S.S.R. the seizure of power by the workers, which means that the workers are masters both in education and in industry, has solved the underlying difficulties of this problem; and as, under the control of the workers, life there is being consciously organised upon a Socialist plan, the workers themselves are in a position to undertake the

systematic training of the young workers who are taking their places in this great and growing new life.

The aim, therefore, of the Higher Schools is (*a*) to create a nucleus of specialists for all branches of industry; (*b*) to prepare scientists for the educational needs of the scientific, technical, and industrial institutions of the country, and more particularly for the higher schools themselves; and (*c*) to spread useful knowledge among the proletarian and rural masses, whose welfare takes the first place in the activities of the higher schools.

All citizens of the U.S.S.R. of either sex who have reached the age of seventeen and who are eligible under the regulations for admission published by the Commissariat of Education, may become students of higher schools. Thus for the first time in the history of mankind, the working classes have obtained free access to Universities and Higher Schools.

In all these schools the students train themselves by entering into and working in social and industrial life. The management of each school, both as regards administration and tuition, is in the hands of a Board of Administration on which serve representatives of staff and students, of the Trade Unions to which they belong, and of the department of education responsible for the school. The students have their own organisations, from the Central Bureau of Students attached to the Central Committee of the Trade Unions, to the students' organisation for each particular school or faculty.

The Second Moscow University. Owing to the rapid growth of the First Moscow University, it became necessary to set up the Second University; a Third University is contemplated.

The Second University is housed in the Pre-Revolution Institute for Higher Courses for Women, a handsome building in the Italian Renaissance style. The great hall (Lenin's Auditorium) is built of marble, and seats 1,200. There is a reference library of 6,000 books, whilst in the Philological and Literature Library there are 58,000 volumes.

Organisation and Curriculum. There are three faculties, the Chemico-Pharmaceutical, the Medical, and the Pedagogical. The Pedagogical Faculty trains teachers for every type of educational institution. By means of the laboratory method, specialists get a practical grasp of the work in which they have specialised; in addition to this they are trained to teach what they have mastered, whilst by carefully planned activities in factory circles, Trade Union branches, etc., they learn how to carry out their educational work in direct contact with and for the benefit of the working or peasant masses among whom they will find themselves when student days are over.

Social Origin of Students. These percentages give a summary of the composition of the student body at the time of the delegation's visit:—

Children of Workers	25 per cent.
Children of Peasants	28 „ „
Adult Peasants	5 „ „
Children of State Employees	28 „ „
Children of Intellectuals (Doctors, teachers, technicians, etc.)	10 „ „
Children of Independent Artisans	4 „ „

Of the students, 8 per cent. were members of the Communist Party, 12 per cent. members of the Young Communist League, and 80 per cent. were non-party.

Entrance to the University. Places in the University are allocated among the Trade Unions, the Scientific Section of the Educational Worker's Union, The Red Army, The Council of National Minorities, The Education Departments of the Provinces, and the Workers' Faculties. Competitive examinations were at one time abolished, but in order to get students adequately equipped to benefit from a University course, it has been found necessary to re-impose these, except in the case of students from the Worker's Faculties who receive a certificate if they qualify to embark on a University course. The examinations are based as much on the students' past work recorded in note books and in teachers' reports, as on a combined written and *viva voce* text.

Finance of Students. Students who need it receive an allowance of 23 roubles a month, and they get certain concessions such as cheap tickets to the theatres. The 23 roubles alone, however, is hardly sufficient to provide adequate food, clothing and shelter. Students whose homes are out of Moscow live in hostels where there is necessarily none of that luxury associated with certain English Universities. There are no fees for tuition.

Students' Organisations. All the students belong to their respective Trade Unions, and branches of these Unions are organised within the University. For dealing with academic matters there is a series of joint committees of students and staff. These committees decide the form of the tuition given. They get international contacts through the R.I.L.U. and the Educational Workers' International. There were on the 1st December, 1926, in the U.S.S.R., 136 Universities

(excluding 15 Communist and 22 Workers' Universities) with 163,171 students attached.

The Darwinian Museum. This museum, a collection of material second to none in the world, was inspected under the expert guidance of Professor Kotz, the Director, who, although making it clear that he had nothing to do with the Communist Party, spoke with warm appreciation of the way in which he was ably seconded in his work by the Soviet authorities.

Visits were also paid to the dissecting room, the anatomical museum, the medical lecture theatre, the operating theatre, the chemico-pharmaceutical laboratory, and physico-chemical building with its lofty lecture theatre built in the modern classical style and capable of holding 550 students.

The general impression gained of the fabric and equipment of the University was that these were not inferior to those of the average modern western European University.

Technical Education. The account given later of visits to institutions for technical education in Moscow deals with higher technical education. The standard technical school is the Technicum. There are also professional schools. On January 1st, 1925, there were 644 of these technicums in the R.S.F.S.R. with 120,868 students and 14,137 teachers. By 1st December, 1926, these numbers had grown to 707 technicums with 127,301 students, and for the U.S.S.R. 1,017 such institutions catering for 180,475 persons, together with 2,702 professional schools with 286,844 persons attending.

The aim of the technicum is (*a*) to prepare minor directive or executive personnel for all branches of in-

dustry; (*b*) to train professional workers, including teachers, and (*c*) to promote among the inhabitants of the district, special and practical knowledge. The length of the course is 3-4 years. Admission to the first course is granted to persons not below fifteen years of age with a previous preparation equal to the seven years' second grade Labour School.

The Moscow Higher Technological Institute. Under the Czar the work of this Institute was very much hampered through inadequate funds. Since the Revolution there has been a great and continuous change for the better. Three new institutes, one for High Power Electrical Research, a Super-dynamical Research Station and an Aero-Chemical Research Station have recently been opened.

The Institute has five Faculties: Mechanical Engineering, Chemical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Civil Engineering, and Textile Technology.

Curriculum. There is a five year course. In the first three years a general scientific training is given, which forms the basis for two years specialist education. Thirty-five per cent. of the students were children of workers, and the rest were children of peasants and intellectuals. In all there were 5,500 students. 700 places were allotted yearly, 350 to the Trade Unions and 350 to the Workers' Faculties; these were filled by competitive examination.

Workshops and Laboratories. In the engineering laboratories there were machines of all types. In the textile house there was elaborate equipment for testing and conditioning. The Institute acts as assessor between the State Textile Trust and the Soviet Importing Agency. The experimental Spinning and Weaving

Sheds occupied a large five storied building where there was machinery for handling every conceivable type of textile fabric.

In the Electro-technical Experimental Station the design and execution of the necessary plant represent a fine post-revolutionary achievement. Higher voltages are dealt with here than in any research institution not forming a branch of a manufacturing concern.

Factory Schools. There remains to be described the way in which the Soviet is tackling the task of training the mass of industrial workers. In view of the ever-increasing industrial development of the U.S.S.R., a development upon which the success of the building of the Socialist State depends, this is a most important branch of Soviet Education. On 1st December, 1926, there were 1,068 factory schools with 109,403 students in the U.S.S.R. In addition there were 215 model workshops with 11,695 persons attached.

The Moscow State Printing Works Factory School. There are very many factory schools similar to this in Russia, whose object is to train promising young workers to become efficient in their particular trade, the time of the scholar-workers being spent partly in the factory and partly in the school. Each factory school has consequently its own particular bias or biases. This school had two (*a*) engraving in the classical style, and (*b*) the technology of printing.

Each pupil works an eight hour day from 9 a.m. to 7.30 p.m. with a break of 2½ hours, the morning being spent in the factory and the afternoon in school. The course lasts three years, the ages of the pupils ranging from 17 to 22. During the first year, 24 hours per week are spent in the factory and 22 hours in school.

PHYSICAL TRAINING AT A SCHOOL AT TIFLIS THAT WAS ONCE A MERCHANT'S RESIDENCE

A CLASS IN A SCHOOL FOR TRAINING FACTORY FOREMEN AND INSTRUCTORS

During the following years a larger proportion of the time is spent in the factory.

The curriculum is as follows: (1) General Knowledge. (2) Russian. (3) Sociology. (4) Mathematics. (5) Physics. (6) Chemistry. (7) A foreign language. (8) Technology of special subjects. During the first year emphasis is laid on general subjects, including a rational understanding of politics.

Ninety-four pupils were entered at the beginning of the scholastic year 1926-27, but only sixty-seven were found to have sufficient knowledge to profit by the course. Of these twenty-eight were members of the Communist Party.

A modified form of the Dalton Plan is adopted at this school as in many other Russian schools. The modification consists in the fact that scholars work in groups. Each group has its own time table, and members of a group undertake various pieces of work collectively.

The discipline was stated to have been not good when the school was started, but, as a result of self-government, it had now become very satisfactory. The pupils' committee appoints two commissions—one for sociological, the other for physical subjects—to decide in consultation with the teachers all questions *re* work to be done, etc. There is also a control commission, on which teachers sit, to report on the degree of proficiency attained by the pupils. Proficiency is determined not by examinations but by means of fortnightly theses plus the reports of the Control commission. The standard was stated to be high, and sixty per cent. of the pupils attained it.

The school publishes its own journal, written mainly

by the pupils and produced entirely by them. The get-up of the copies seen was very good indeed.

Pupils receive wages for their work, the rates being (as for adult workers) according to proficiency. There are six grades, the minimum wages being 30 Rs. per month, the maximum 55 Rs. No pupils were actually on the minimum.

The school employs thirteen teachers, which number is being increased. These are mainly engineers working in the factory to which the school is attached. The hours of teaching are on the average twenty-four academic hours (45 minutes) per week. Teachers in this school are paid in accordance with the number of hours they are teaching, the rates being 1Rr. 76K. per academic hour for general subjects, and 2R. 20K. per academic hour for special subjects. The maximum salary a teacher can receive is 280R. per month.

The nearest approximation we have in this country to the Factory School of Russia is the Day Continuation School. There are, however, outstanding differences, and the Russian Factory School appears to mark a considerable advance upon its English equivalent. Two points especially call for mention. (*a*) Discipline appears to be much better in the factory school. This is due to the excellent system of self-government and to the keen interest the Russian pupils take in their work. (*b*) The inclusion of Sociology in the Russian curriculum is well calculated to make the pupil a good citizen of the Workers' Republic as well as a good craftsman.

Workers' Faculties or Rabfacs. Previous to the Revolution, higher education in Russia was virtually a monopoly of the wealthier classes. It was exceedingly difficult for a workman to enter a University. This

could not be tolerated in a Workers' Republic, and thus these Rabfacs—schools to prepare workers for University education—were set up.

The Rabfac in Connection with the First Moscow University. There are actually two Rabfacs, a morning Rabfac for workers and peasants who, by virtue of scholarships, can devote their whole time to education; and an evening Rabfac for those engaged in working in factories in the daytime. These were established in 1919. Most Rabfacs, as such, date from 1920.

Rabfac scholarships are given by the various Trade Unions, the Communist Party, the Young Communist League and other kindred organisations. As a result of the work of the Rabfacs, forty per cent. of the present students of the First Moscow University are workers and peasants.

All students entering a Rabfac have to pass an elementary examination in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and also in social science. An examination in progress was witnessed. The examinees had to read aloud, and with understanding, a short passage in Russian; to write a brief essay on a sociological topic such as, " Why I want to enter a Rabfac," or " Why is it necessary for the Soviet Government to liquidate illiteracy," etc., a choice of subjects being given; and to answer simple questions in arithmetic, involving a knowledge of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. We were informed that there were many more applicants than the Rabfacs could accommodate.

The curriculum in both Rabfacs provides a three year course, school hours being from 8.30 a.m. to 2.30 p.m. Monday to Saturday. During the later part of the day students work either at home, in the labora-

tories, or in the libraries. The present number of students is 900, of which sixty per cent. are workers and forty per cent. peasants. About one fifth are women. Roughly thirty per cent. of the students are members of the Communist Party and an equal number members of the Young Communist League. The ages vary from 18 to 30. Students who have gained scholarships are in receipt of 23Rs. per month plus free housing accommodation.

The evening Rabfac provides a four year course for workmen in factories. The students are at work in the factories from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. except for a break of one hour for dinner. Then they attend the Rabfac for five days a week from 6.30 p.m. to 11 p.m. The present number of students is 600. Throughout the R.S.F.S.R. there are about 30,000 Rabfac students, of whom 8,000 finish the course each year. This number of students had grown to 33,186 in 65 Rabfacs by 1st December, 1926. In the whole U.S.S.R. the number was 45,702 students in 109 such centres.

The self-government system, working by means of commissions, is in operation in the Rabfacs, one third of each commission being students. There is a Presidium (Executive Committee) of five members, two of whom are students.

The Dalton Plan is being tried in the morning Rabfac, and the Principal stated that it had been found very successful when sufficient time was available. The method of group work, the characteristic Russian method, is also in operation. The teacher sets a problem and demonstrates how it is to be approached; the group working collectively then undertakes the solution of the problem, and finally a conference is held with

the teacher when all outstanding difficulties can be cleared up.

Several of the laboratories were inspected, including biological and chemical laboratories. They were large and comfortable. In addition to the classroom and laboratory work, excursions for the students to picture galleries are organised and free tickets for the theatres are provided.

In order to obtain information as to the standard required for the entrance examination to the University (Matriculation) which students are expected to pass after finishing the Rabfac course, detailed questions were asked concerning the examination in Mathematics. A knowledge of elementary algebra up to and including the binomial theorem, and of elementary trigonometry up to and including the solution of triangles is required, so that the standard appears to be slightly higher than that of London Matriculation.

The two Rabfacs employ 150 teachers. Working 12 academic hours a week, each receives 65Rs. per month. Many work double time and receive double pay. Those sitting on the pedagogical commission, which works out the programme of studies, receive an additional 65Rs. per month, as also do heads of departments.

Conclusion. This summary of Higher Education in the U.S.S.R. shews that the first Workers' State is shouldering its responsibilities in this direction efficiently and with vision. Although what is worth using of the scientific and technical knowledge and the teaching methods of capitalist education is adapted for use, the system of higher education born of the Revolution is essentially new. It is new in that it is based on the class struggle, on the workers' and peasants'

victory in that struggle. It is new in that students, besides pursuing their studies in classroom and laboratory, fit themselves by social work among the toiling masses, to help harvest the fruits of that victory in the building up of Socialism; new in that it opens up to workers and peasants and their children the highest grades of education.

The entrance examination for the first Moscow University Rabfac described in this chapter made a lasting impression on those who saw it. The mighty achievements of the Revolution, the vastness and the possibilities of the work yet to be done were crystallised as it were in that simple function. Workers and peasants, both youths and adults, had taken the places of the youth of the former wealthy class; and these students, so lately rescued from feudalism and illiteracy, were obviously determined to do their utmost to fight their way through to that intellectual and technical development which should enable them to be effective agents in carrying on the great task to which workers and peasants set their hands in October, 1917.

CHAPTER VI

ART IN THE FIRST WORKERS' STATE

If he wishes to get any understanding of the development of Art in the Soviet State, the reader should endeavour, if he has not already done so, to overhaul his own ideas as to the nature of art and its relation to the class struggle. The artist of course is just like any other worker, his particular job being to translate his environment through the medium of painting, music, architecture, poetry, etc. He must of necessity translate life in the light of his own experience of it, and his experience of life depends upon the class to which he belongs. Thus art, like education, necessarily expresses a class conception.

Within the Capitalist State it is impossible for the workers to produce an art of their own. In order to develop his technical skill the artist must be freed from any other work, whilst very often he needs costly tools and materials with which to work. Thus a slave class cannot produce an art of its own. In England, therefore, artistic expression is practically the monopoly of the possessing class. Decadent Capitalism sets its banal

stamp upon literature, music, the film, the play. Through all these agencies the propertyless worker is flooded with the tenets of private property.

What, then, is the position of art in the only country where private property has lost its sway?

The seizure of power by the workers has set free great potentialities among them in the direction of artistic expression, and the task of the new rulers is to get these newly freed forces to shape and develop themselves into the building up of a proletarian art. This task is being undertaken by the workers' organisations.

Proletcult. To Proletcult come all kinds of creative artistic workers from Trades Unions, the Red Army, and from the Young Communist League. Thus the worker who has any artistic skill to be developed for the service of his class can find his opportunity. Proletcult is based on the idea that now that the workers have won the ruling power they will develop their own art. It is further held that all art is of necessity, either by design or by its very nature, class propaganda, and that the new proletarian art will develop as an active agent in building up and perpetuating the First Workers' State.

Members of Proletcult are expected to be active artistic workers among their comrades. Their work takes the form of theatrical and musical productions; the designing of those striking posters and wall newspapers seen everywhere in the U.S.S.R.; the organising of Clubs and Lenin Corners among the workers as a means of widening the range of appeal of the new artistic productions; and indeed any kind of work demanding artistic skill which shall forward the cause of the Revolution. Either individual worker or workers' organi-

A CLASS IN A TRANSPORT WORKERS' CLUB: THE LIQUIDATION OF ILLITERACY

PALATIAL WORKERS' CLUB NEAR THE PUTILOV WORKS LENINGRAD. THE THEATRE ALONE SEATS 3,000 PERSONS A FULL VIEW OF THE HUGE REVOLVING STAGE,

sations can affiliate to Proletcult, which Narcompross subsidises each year to the extent of 100,000 roubles.

The Moscow delegation visited the Central Proletcult at the Villa Morossoff, the palace of a former millionaire, and discussed the work of the organisation with its head, Comrade V. F. Pletnev. Many fine and interesting examples of artistic poster work were seen here, and there were many striking original designs for linoleum produced by young workers. The building included the famous proletcult Theatre (now mainly used for rehearsals), several class rooms where courses for workers are held, and the library of 85,000 books.

Some account will now be given of the development in the U.S.S.R. of the Cinema and Theatre.

The Cinema. Under the workers' rule there has been a great development in the art of the Cinema. The creative task of the workers in building up the Socialist State gives basis and reality to the pioneer work at film production now going on. The lack of reality of so many of the films with which we are familiar, with their weary reiteration of a degraded sex obsession and their flamboyant display of vulgar wealth, become strikingly apparent when such a film as the famous Potemkin is seen. It is of a distinctly new type. It portrays the dramatic revolt in the Black Sea Fleet at Odessa in 1905. The photography is magnificent; the dramatisation grips the onlooker. The audience is obviously moved. Workers enjoying the fruits of the victory of October 1917 and who remember the sufferings endured to bring that victory about, are naturally deeply thrilled at watching such a magnificent reproduction of the bravery, the sufferings and the final seeming defeat of the Pioneers of 1905. It is not surprising that our rulers

in England forbid the display of this epoch-making film. Another fine film* is " The Little Log House on Lake Bailkal," wherein a picture is given of the conditions in 1920 when the Whites were endeavouring to destroy the Soviets, and were even able to enter the Soviets themselves, sabotaging the efforts that were being made to bring workers and peasants together.

Cinema actors do not form a profession separate from their colleagues of the stage.

The Theatre. The freeing of the workers from the material and ethical domination of the Capitalists has led to a great growth of interest in the theatre among the workers. It seems plain that the workers will create for themselves a new dramatic art, freed from the conventions of the bourgeois drama. In the brief descriptions of various theatres given, we trace the experimental beginnings of the new proletarian drama. Accompanying this activity in the new art, we see a greatly increased interest in the plays of pre-revolution days, now made available to a wider audience.

The Opera. Whereas London cannot support one permanent opera, Moscow alone supports three. One of the companies gives performances in the suburbs so that no opportunity of reaching the workers shall be missed.

The Moscow Art Theatre, famous before the Revo-

*Other films seen by our Investigator are:—The End of St. Petersburg, Two Days, Ten Days That Shook the World, Peasant Women of Riazan, The Mother, Mechanics of the Brain, and a film shown in schools explaining the processes of Digestion. See *Close Up: the Only Magazine devoted to Films as an Art,* 24 Devonshire St., W. C., 1, Vol. III., Nos., 4, 5, and 6, and the numbers published in 1929.

lution, still flourishes, but the leading place has now been taken by those theatres where the revolutionary spirit has borne fruit in the evolution of new ideas of production. Foremost among these is that of.

Meyerhold. In certain respects the productions here suggest the methods of the Elizabethan theatre joined to a symbolism and a theoretic standpoint that belong to a revolutionary age. The curtain has disappeared, and here, as elsewhere in Moscow theatres, there is a less rigid separation of actors and audience. The usual scenery has disappeared and its place has been taken by symbolical structures or, more frequently, by mechanical devices designed to play their part in representing passion and emotion. The plays deals with revolutionary life. The " Howl ! China," recently produced, is based on actual incident and portrays vividly the Imperialist oppression of England and America, and the revolutionary strivings of the Chinese workers. Another revolutionary theatre is that associated with

Proletcult. This theatre developed on acrobatic lines and its methods began to approximate to those of the circus. This phase is now passing. The theatre has its headquarters at the Coliseum, Christy Prood. Its scenery and stage apparatus are so designed as to be readily converted, and at the same time to give opportunities for acting on several different levels. This portable property enables performances to be given at the Workers' Clubs three nights a week.

The Kamerny Theatre is remakable for the peculiar cubist and futurist background adopted. A brilliant company has gathered here, including the clever and versatile actress Alice Koonen.

The Vachtangoff Theatre was formed by a group of

actors who were dissatisfied with the static tendencies of the Moscow Art Theatre. Their method of production aims at closer association between actors and audience and makes use of different levels as well as cubist scenery. A performance of "Princess Turandotte" was a delightful exhibition of light-hearted humour and satire into which revolutionary sentiments were introduced. In addition to these and other similar theatres in Moscow there is the enormous

Bolshoi Theatre which draws huge audiences to its performances of ordinary Russian and foreign opera. The large chorus, the huge orchestra, and the artistic nature of the whole production, add to the efforts of well-known principals who justify the applause of a remarkably critical audience. Mention should also be made of such travelling companies as the famous *Blue Blouses* who give satirical sketches on topical events, both Russian and European, as well as on topical follies, official or otherwise.

Every large town has its own company at the State-supported theatres and everywhere the workers are establishing theatres which aim at combining art with Communist propaganda.

The Children's Theatre of Moscow. To teachers this is perhaps the most interesting theatrical development of Russia. This theatre, which is unique in its aims and in its combination of scientific pedagogy and observation with artistic presentation, is directed by Natasha Satz. In building up the theatre, this lady and those with whom she worked took as their principle that the theatre must in all respects be adapted to the child, and not the child to the theatre. At the same time, the play is not only to amuse, it is to educate.

And in the U.S.S.R. that means that it shall help to make class-conscious Socialists. Further, it was determined that not only should the theatre be educational for the children, but that the children should educate all those responsible for it.

It was early discovered, as the result of failure, that there were no suitable plays for children, and that they had to be created. On the assumption that what interested mankind in primitive times would interest children now, the choice was made of Arabian stories for the subject matter of the earlier productions. The effort was made to introduce into these the social characteristics belonging to our time. For example, to express the common idea of the workman who takes the greatest pride in the care of his tools, there was represented a man who watered the streets and was continually worried about his leather water bottle which was to him the most important thing in the world. The story of Hiawatha, Robin Hood and even Punch and Judy were similarly treated. This has led up to the production of plays dealing with to-day.

A recent play, " Pioneeria," is typical. The aim of the play is, by producing scenes from the life of the Pioneers, to carry on propaganda for that movement. The story is that of a boy of bourgeois parents, who, against their wish, becomes a Pioneer. The lighting, the bright costumes, the simple, somewhat futuristic scenery, gave a pleasing effect added to by the music. Dancing, marching, drill and agile movements relieve the play from being solely propaganda. This was further aided by the numerous comic situations.

A group of workers has now been got together who write plays specially adapted to children of the various

age groups. Under the control of the organiser of the theatre, the head of the artistic side and the head of the pedagogical side have corresponding advisory committees to help them. The children themselves largely dictate the form, action, and contents of the performance. A new play is read to the children in school, and they are asked for their ideas about it and for criticism. If these are thought worthy, they are acted upon. Suggested drawings for stage settings are asked for, and are similarly dealt with. Pedagogical workers attached to the theatre sit among the children and note how they receive the play and its effect upon them. In later plays provision is made for the audience to take part. They pretend to journey to the place of the play. They make noises suggestive of travelling, and by mass response to questions they signify their arrival at the destination, etc. The audience are also encouraged to make certain actions—sitting, standing, raising the hands, etc.—to demonstrate that they are part of the performance. A feature of this theatre is the highly qualified orchestra, from which has sprung the idea of giving symphony concerts to blind children.

CHAPTER VII

ADULT EDUCATION

In the U.S.S.R. educating the adult population is more *immediately* important than the education of children. It involves an even greater and more widespread effort on the part of the Commissariat of Education and the cultural sections of the Trade Unions, for it not only means transforming adults into literate, intelligent citizens and raising their cultural level by every possible means, but also creating a new cultural outlook opposed to that of Capitalism.

Much emphasis is therefore laid on political education, theoretical and practical. The work involves centres for the liquidation of illiteracy; political-cultural clubs and reading rooms (Lenin Corners); workers' and peasants' homes; permanent and itinerant libraries; self-education centres and magazines; six months' courses, usually vocational; Rabfacs and similar schools for adults; agricultural and industrial day schools running two or three year courses; Sunday schools of a similar kind for those who cannot attend weekdays; elementary political schools for training organisers for Soviet, T.U. and Party departments; Communist Uni-

versities and special scientific institutes; theatres, cinemas, radio and educational posters of a simple kind; propaganda work (including tableaux, plays, etc.) for special campaigns; and the use of Socialised museums and art galleries of all kinds. Surely an immense variety of work.

Naturally the most pressing task is the liquidation of illiteracy. Early in 1924 an adequate staff of men and women engaged exclusively in this work was available all over the country. The Red Army and Trades Unions have abolished it among their members of over six months standing; but illiteracy among the national minorities and in out-of-the-way rural districts still exists. Nevertheless victory is certain in a few years. In ten districts of the industrial belts round Moscow and Leningrad there is no illiteracy. The percentage of literates among conscripted persons of *all* nationalities at the end of 1925 was 89.13. This is the more remarkable when it is remembered that there are in the whole U.S.S.R. 156 nationalities, 43 of whom in 1917 possessed no alphabet, much less printed books or papers, *e.g.*, Yakootia, twelve times as large as Great Britain had no books, and the alphabet had to be prepared in Roman characters. All except five or six of these 43 nationalities preferred to use Roman characters.

How is this amazing work of adult education being accomplished? First by the Extraordinary Commission for the Abolition of Illiteracy, assisted especially by the "Down with Illiteracy Society," (President, Kalinin) as well as by Party and Soviet organisations. Less than 20 per cent. of the cost is borne by the Government, the remaining 80 per cent. being met locally. The newspaper "Isvestia" contributed £1,000 to this Society

in 1924, and by the endless chain method of gathering subscriptions this was supplemented by more than 1½ million roubles in 1926. Through these dues, and from sales of literature, from lotteries, etc., the Society supports a third of the centres for liquidating illiteracy which numbered early in 1927, 49,804, with 1,599,755 persons attached. Most of these schools are in the villages. The " Down with Illiteracy Society " published in 1925 over two million primers and twelve million books, of which nearly seven million copies were specially for illiterates and semi-illiterates, and the rest popular literature for peasants.

Secondly, this work is carried on by methods that are practical and closely related to the work interests of the people. Booklets are simple and adapted to the locality; they deal with the industry and history of the towns and villages concerned. Wall newspapers and posters are widely used. Home education has been extensively fostered since 1925. Quicker learners help the slower; semi-illiterates the illiterates. The abler ones write in three months sufficiently well to copy the lists of goods and prices at a local grocer's, or to send a simple letter to a relative. As soon as they can read a little they are encouraged as semi-illiterates to go to the local cottage reading room (Isba) or club, and then to the library. After six months of such work, a school is set up to prepare abler persons for a Rabfac.

Self-education has naturally sprung up among the more alert workers and peasants, and is fostered as naturally by the authorities. Encouraging this spontaneous growth are such organisations as the Naturalist Association, founded 1918, which has for its object the

discovery of exceptional talent of any kind among the masses who were unable to obtain education when young. The Association in 1927 united upwards of 5,000 self-educated persons, from inventors to technical experts, scattered all over the continent. Attached to the chief Board for non-school and political education work among adults are special commissions set up locally and centrally, which give advice to all who desire to educate themselves. It is in the clubs (called the People's House in the larger villages) that the cultural resources and the extra-mural activities are centred. These clubs are one of the most inspiring features of Soviet life. Classes and lectures are organised; books, magazines, newspapers and wall newspapers are always in use; the radio is frequently installed, and its use in institutions, parks, squares, boulevards, and private houses is growing extensively; dramatic performances, concerts and cinema pictures of excellent quality are given. Teachers and sailors, doctors, militia and soldiers, agricultural experts and newspaper correspondents—all are to be found with the workers. There are upwards of 15,000 clubs and 20,000 Red Corners functioning.

All the stationary libraries in factories and offices, and in the large towns and villages organise study circles. The smaller villages and factories are being helped by itinerant libraries. The number of copies of books printed in 1925 was 242,035,904—nearly double the 1912 output. Museums, art galleries and special collections of historical interest are at the disposal of organised parties. The State Publishing House sends out millions of cheap books from its special Peasant Department, and the peasants are en-

couraged to write their opinions of the books published. There were in 1926, 652 newspapers published with a circulation of 8,357,142. This is a mass work with mass enthusiasm behind and within it.

The Red Army as an Educational Factor, political and cultural, is perhaps the most influential of any institution for adult education. The education is such as to enable every soldier to know why he is called to the Army; what is the social and political structure of the Workers' State and why he has to defend it; what forces are enemies of the Workers' Republic and why. The idea in short is that the Red Soldier shall not be blindly disciplined, a soulless piece of machinery in the hands of officers, but an independent thinking man who consciously and willingly carries out the orders of those he elects to command him.

As most of the soldiers are peasants, illiterates among new recruits are first sorted out, and a good knowledge of the " Three R's." is obtained by them in 6-7 months. Then follow courses which are obligatory on all, the whole two years' instruction culminating in a two months practical course to prepare them for cultural leadership in their native place. The programme of study includes the history, structure and tasks of the Red Army; the relations between men and officers and their rights and duties; the growth and problems of the Soviet Government; the characteristics of the Communist Party; the economics, geography and political standing of other countries. The Dalton Laboratory Plan is being used. Full participation in political and social activity is allowed to soldiers. The Army has its own newspaper devoted mainly to letters and discussions by soldiers, but also

dealing frankly with the chief political and economic questions of the day.

Candidates for officership must show that they have the necessary qualities as well as the equivalent of secondary education. The officers' course lasts three or four years, the main study being military technique. There are many professional schools (most of them were cadet schools formerly) for this special work.

Is there and has there ever been any army in the world like this?

CHAPTER VIII

SOME SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF SOVIET EDUCATION

1. *The Fight Against Child Destitution.* The Imperialist War, the Revolution, the Civil War, and the famine left the U.S.S.R. the burden of a huge number of destitute children. It has been difficult to get exact figures, but there must have been in 1920-21 well over 400,000 permanently destitute children. Many of these children had no parental or adult control of any sort, and all of them were in a state of most appalling neglect. Occasionally in Moscow one or two of them not yet in a home, were to be seen; and the extent of the problem with which the Soviet was faced could be gauged by the heart-breaking appearance of these last few waifs.

In the whole of the U.S.S.R., that is, one-sixth of the world's surface, there are at present about 67,000 children not yet provided for. In 1923 there were 220,000. In three years it is hoped that child destitution will be a thing of the past. Moscow was cleared of them in the autumn of 1927; but a few came in from the provinces during winter.

Totals for U.S.S.R. 1st DECEMBER, 1926.

	Institutions	Children cared for
Homes for Normal Children ...	2,269	183,283
Shelters, Isolation Houses, etc. ...	349	21,914
Training Schools	224	14,453
Schools for Defectives	183	14,632
Totals	3,025	234,282

The Pushkina Home for Destitute Children (*Children's Town*). In the Pushkina Home, or the Children's Town, as it is called, there are fifteen hundred children. The Town is made up of twelve children's homes, housed in villas of the pre-revolution wealthy class, spread about over a large area of beautifully wooded country about twenty miles from Moscow. There is a Unified Labour School in the Town. Primary and Secondary pupils live in different homes. There are wood and metal workshops and a bakery attached to the school.

The children are brought away from the streets by social inspectors working for the Institution for Destitute Children run by the Moscow Soviet, and they are aided in this work by the voluntary Society of Children's Friends. On leaving the homes, those pupils who are fitted for it, go on to a university or technicum. Out of the 3,000 pupils finishing the course in the destitution homes of the R.S.F.S.R. in 1926, 640 went on to the university or technicum. The remainder either went on to the factory or professional school or became apprenticed to artisans.

Abnormal children—those spoilt by the life of the streets—are kept in homes separate from those for normal children.

The deputation questioned M. Gusnetskoff, the

manager of the Town, on an allegation in the English press about immorality among the children of Russia. He replied that immorality was no more common among the children of Russia than among the children of England. Bad habits learnt on the streets soon gave way to the ameliorative treatment in the homes. The interests of the child were studied, and work was used as discipline. They got the children keen on the Pioneer movement, and it was found that self-government was a powerful aid in creating healthy interests among them. The deputation spent some time in one of the homes in which there lived 53 children—24 boys and 29 girls—of ages ranging from 11 to 15. The atmosphere was that of happy home life. When the deputation entered the big sitting-room a girl was playing the piano and others were sewing or knitting. There was nothing institutional about the tone of the place. The children looked beautifully clean and healthy, and in reply to our questions, they spoke well of their life in the home. They vastly preferred it to their former destitute existence. Hence the reason why relatively few run away.

The house had its children's Soviet, and every child is organised in a link, that is, a small group of pupils with some definite job to do in connection with the life—educational, domestic, or social— of the house. Except for heavy jobs such as scrubbing, and washing clothes, all the work of the home is done by the children. The girls make their own dresses.

There is a big vegetable garden (3½ dessiatins) and miniature stock farm run by one of the homes which makes a special study of improving the uses of plants and the breeds of animals. The pupils of this home

look after the cows and pigs which contribute towards the feeding of the Town. A beautiful flower garden is also kept by this home.

Another of the homes specialises in music and art. At this home the deputation was entertained by the students' choir, which gave a spirited rendering of some four-part Russian folk songs. Here we were shewn some of the pupils' painting and drawing. Both the music and the other art work were of a very high standard. The general impression made by the gathering at this concert, by the obviously healthy and happy relations existing between the lads and girls and teachers who were there, can be best conveyed to the reader by saying that the whole thing resembled in these respects a similar gathering in a good mixed secondary school in this country. That such a result has been achieved in so short a time with children coming from a state of probably unprecedented destitution and demoralisation, is a concrete demonstration of the effectiveness of the educational method on which the work of the homes is based.

The Fight Against Consumption. The problem of waging war against tuberculosis and of protecting children against its ravages is a world-wide one. The War, the Civil War, and the famine have not made this problem easy in the U.S.S.R. The delegation visited the Children's Sanatorium at Lenin Hills, Moscow, and it was enabled to get there some idea of the resolute way in which the First Workers' Government is tackling this job.

The Children's Sanatorium, Lenin Hills, Moscow is housed in a spacious villa, formerly belonging to a rich member of the pre-revolution middle class. It is finely

A SCHOOL FOR DELICATE CHILDREN OUTSIDE MOSCOW

situated on high ground, commanding a splendid view of Moscow spread out along the banks of its river.

It was the children's bed-time when the delegation arrived. The boys were in bed, and the girls were waiting to greet us before getting into bed. The dormitories—there were four of them for the fifty odd children—were bright and clean. The children were brown skinned, obviously well fed, and bubbling over with delight at greeting English comrades. Each room greeting us with a combined shout of welcome such as "Long live the U.S.S.R.!", "Long live our English Guests!", and when we left the last boys' room they could stay in bed no longer, but rushed out and crowded around us, so that boys, teachers, visitors, motor drivers, guides and interpreters formed one joyous mass.

There are eighteen such sanatoria in the Moscow district, with an average of fifty-five children in each. These sanatoria are administered jointly by the Education and the Health Commissariats. These bodies meet 50 per cent. of the cost, and the rest is met by the Trade Unions. The children are those who shew any tendency to consumption, and they are selected through the agency of the school clinics.

Great attention is paid to the teaching of hygiene, and here, as throughout the Soviet educational system, self-organisation of the pupils goes along with the teaching. The more active children form health circles in order to organise the work. It is found that when children return to their homes, they act as keen propagandists of hygiene. There was a group of Young Pioneers, the preparatory organisation for the Communist Party, working among the children.

The following is the programme of a day's routine:

7.30 a.m. Get up, toilet, physical exercises.
8.30 a.m. Breakfast of coffee or cocoa, eggs, wheat bread and butter, caviare, cheese or ham.
9.00 a.m. Medical inspection of the sick.
9.30-11. School work. Nature work out of doors or on balcony.
11.00 a.m. Lunch. Eggs, milk, bread and apples. Sun baths, shower baths, play.
1.00 p.m. Dinner of soup, fish or meat, fruit.
2.00 p.m. The " Dead Hour " to 3.30. Half an hour free until
4.00 p.m. Tea of tea and milk, bread and butter, pastry, baked apples, cheese. School and group work. (Pioneers, gardening, committees, etc.).
6.30 p.m. Doctor.
7.00 p.m. Supper of milk and gruel or rice, cake and apples. Games and reading.
9.00 p.m. All quiet.

All the school work is done under medical supervision, and a careful medical history of each child is kept. The parents are invited to pay fortnightly visits to the children. One of the teachers spoke of the great transformation brought about by the children's stay in the homes. (The children stay from four-and-a-half to five-and-a-half months in the home, and then they are watched by the after-care organisation). " Many of them come in," she said, " like little old people, and the life in the home brings their childhood back to them."

The Mentally Defective Child. Under the direction of Professor Murashew at the Moscow Medical Peda-

gogical Station the whole question of abnormal and sub-normal children is being dealt with on a scientific basis. The station is a central clinic for dealing with the problem. Working in contact with schools and institutions dealing with defectives, it is carrying out investigation and recording results, which in turn serve as guidance to the special schools in their work. Advice is given to any parent, doctor or teacher concerning any child. There is an experimental school attached to the station. These two distinct classes of children are dealt with:—

1. Those whose intelligence is normal or even above normal, but who shew moral defects.
2. Children who are mentally backward.

Investigations are made along the following lines:—

1. Physical, including bodily measurements.
2. Historical: life and family history as far back as possible.
3. Psychological study.
4. Pedagogical.

In the early stages of dealing with the children the method of sense training is adopted and follows pretty closely the lines of Seguin. The methods and apparatus of Dr. Montessori are freely used and very careful records of each child's progress is kept.

The capabilities of each child are carefully studied and he/she is educated along the lines best suited to him/herself until he/she is ready to take his/her place in a group.

The "complex" method of education is adopted and experiments are being made as to the results obtained by this method. Every opportunity is given for self-expression in the form of handwork, and many good

specimens of such work were seen in the Museum section. No pains are spared to find out every possible detail about the child. Tests are applied at intervals of about four or five months based on those of Binet.

During the summer months all work is of a practical nature, and is carried out in the country. The benefits of this are seen in the improved condition of the children both physically and mentally. Careful note is kept of this improvement from year to year.

Schools attended by abnormal and sub-normal children and called Help Schools. Children between the ages of nine and thirteen attend them. There are forty of these Help Schools in Leningrad. As soon as the child responds to treatment he returns to the ordinary school.

Children who do not respond to treatment at the Help School enter a home. Here education is continued. A home for mild cases of epilepsy was visited, and many boys and girls were noted who were cured and ready to return to their homes.

Teachers in training spend a certain amount of time at the station; those who intend to take up work among defectives, spend the greater amount of their time of training there.

The most striking feature of the whole system of dealing with the abnormal and the sub-normal child is the thoroughness with which the whole question is being investigated, and the scientific method by which this investigation is being carried out. Every possible channel which can throw any light on the subject is being carefully explored, and undoubtedly a very valuable contribution is being made to the study of the education of the mentally abnormal and morally deficient child.

The pedological* study of the normal child, systematised in the research departments of the Universities, is also of the greatest promise. At the Pedological Conference held in Moscow in December 1927, papers on an amazing number of questions relating to the study of the child as a growing socialist adult, were read and discussed. " Nowhere before," says our Investigator, " have I ever seen thousands of teachers passionately interested in a unified study of the child, its environment and the School. Education in Soviet Russia is at last being approached in a truly scientific manner."

*Pedology is the name given to a synthesis of the psychology, biology and physiology of the growing child.

CHAPTER IX

STATEMENTS OF THE DELEGATIONS

1. *The Moscow Delegation to the Press, August 19th,* 1926

1. The Teachers' Labour League Delegation extends heartiest fraternal greetings to the teachers of the Soviet Union. We desire also to thank the Educational Workers' Union for their unfailing courtesy and their assistance in helping us to arrive at a correct understanding of the Soviet educational system. We have been struck by the tremendous enthusiasm and unbounded ambition with which the Soviet teachers are setting about their task of rebuilding education on a socialist basis, as well as by the great progress already accomplished. The U.S.S.R. has been described as "a great educational laboratory"; we would add that the experiments being conducted in this laboratory are of world wide importance and deserve the closest attention of the teachers of all countries. The Teachers' Labour League will do its best to arouse this attention in their own country and will henceforward keep in close touch with the Educational Workers' Union of the U.S.S.R., particularly through the Educational Workers' International. The little T.L.L. greets its big Soviet brother, assuring him that in the critical times now facing the British workers and the workers of all countries the T.L.L. will play its part.

Long live the U.S.S.R.!

Long live the Soviet teachers!

2. *Statement of the Moscow Delegation, August 24th,* 1926

The T.L.L. Delegation have been deeply impressed by what they have seen in Moscow and the surrounding districts. They have been struck by the universal care exhibited by the Soviet regime for the welfare of the masses of the workers. The substantial progress already made in the socialist reconstruction of the country differs radically from the philanthropic and sporadic experiments of capitalist countries.

At the very commencement of their survey it became clear to the T.L.L. delegates that as soon as material obstacles are overcome the entire energy of the Soviet Union will immediately be concentrated on the social and particularly on the educational advancement of the masses. This explains the universal air of reconstruction in the Moscow district and the tremendous enthusiasm of the Soviet workers, both Communist and non-party, in the work they are undertaking. Such enthusiasm can find no parallel in any capitalist country; such energy can exist only inside a stable workers' regime which is actively engaged in shaping the future of a great people.

In the sphere of education the T.L.L. Delegation conducted their survey from the point of view of workers deeply interested in their own profession. They are of the opinion that the Soviet teachers have reached a position of world importance by their strenuous and successful efforts to educate the masses, both child and adult, to play their part as citizens of a working class state. In face of gigantic obstacles—the legacy of war, famine, disease, civil war and illiteracy—the Soviet teachers, working hand in hand with the Education Commissariat of the U.S.S.R., are daily making remarkable progress in the education of the masses. In no other country does a Teachers' Union play such a direct and important part in education as does the Educational Workers' Union of the U.S.S.R. In no other country do teachers themselves play such a role in formulation of the conditions of their own work. The teachers of the U.S.S.R. should indeed be proud of the unique power they have and the position they are in to exercise it, in common with the working class movement of which they form an organic part. In particular, the system of self-government in the schools has aroused the admiration and envy of the delegation. The same is true of the identification of the school system

with the social and political life outside the school. Further, the great emphasis laid upon the physical training of children and adults and the obviously good results already achieved deserve the attention of the educationalists of all countries.

The educational progress of the U.S.S.R. is not sufficiently known outside its boundaries. The T.L.L. will do its utmost to remedy this defect by publishing a report and by addressing meetings of teachers and other workers on the return of the delegation to England.

The delegation desire to thank the Educational Workers' Union of the U.S.S.R. for their hospitality and unfailing kindness, and for their assistance in enabling the delegation to carry out their survey in an effective manner. They hope that the time is not far distant when the T.L.L. will be able to welcome to England a delegation of Soviet teachers.

Long live the international working class unity of the teachers!

Long live the U.S.S.R.

3. *The Statement of the Leningrad Delegation*

The members of the T.L.L. delegation from England who spent eleven days in Leningrad and who have now completed three days in Moscow, wish to reaffirm their appreciation of the splendid educational work which is being done in Soviet Russia.

During our stay we have had helpful interviews with teachers and organisers from almost every branch of your educational system and have visited many educational institutions.

In Moscow we were particularly impressed by the psychological and humane way in which you are treating crime—an example which other European countries will, we hope, try to live up to. We appreciate the research work being done for abnormal and mentally defective children and are full of admiration for the Marx-Engels Institute. Nowhere have we seen so highly specialised an undertaking.

We are more than ever convinced that, as a result of the efficient and thorough way in which you are dealing with your problems, and in spite of the fact that you are hampered from the financial point of view, education in Soviet Russia will be the outstanding achievement of this century. Everywhere we have found enthusiastic teachers who are training the children not only to have

cultured minds and healthy bodies, but to be educated citizens with the full knowledge of the responsibility of belonging to a Workers' country. We now appreciate more fully what you are doing for your teachers. We note with pleasure that you will soon have in operation an admirable pensions scheme and that you fully recognise the economic equality of men and women, a burning question in our country.

We thank most heartily the Russian Teachers' Union for their invitation here, and appreciate the kindness of the comrades who have arranged our excursions and who have given us so happy and inspiring a time.

We are proud to be linked with our Russian comrades through the Educational Workers' International. We realise the lack of political and class consciousness among our fellow teachers in England, but wish our Russian comrades to know that our visit has given us encouragement and a fresh stimulus to carry on the struggle in our country to achieve that which your children are now enjoying.

Long live the international solidarity of the teachers and other workers of the world!

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1 ON EDUCATION IN RUSSIA

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It is not possible to really understand the theory and practice of education in Russia without a knowledge of the sociological theories on which it is based. The following books therefore, in addition to the classic works of Marx and Engels, Darwin and Dietzgen, Lenin and his exponents, are recommended to readers desirous of studying the question.

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